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ABSTRACT

This document contains four articles that provide research-based strategies to promote diversity in the higher education community. Diversity programming at many community colleges tends to be event-centered, whether those events are annual, such as Native American Awareness Month, or incidental, like responses to high-profile hate crimes. However, greater benefits can result from practicing diversity daily. Weaving diversity into everyday life on campus can strengthen bonds between the institution and its under-represented members. The first article, "The Relationship between Race and Socioeconomic Status (SES): Implications for Institutional Research and Admissions Policies" (Bernal, Cabrera, Terenzini), examines how policies that replace the use of race with nonracial socioeconomic factors affect student diversity. States like Texas and California are already forced to make policy decisions using only socioeconomic factors. The second article, "Promoting Diversity in Faculty Hiring: Navigating Dangerous Waters" (Qualiana, Finkelstein), looks at many of the legal questions surrounding the recruitment of a diverse faculty. The authors found the Community College District of Nevada's "minority bonus plans" to be appropriate for some institutions, but they also look at other approaches. The third article, "Filling in the Cracks: Improving Educational Programs and Practices for American Indian and Hispanic Students" (Aragon) takes another look at culturally based learning and provides a theoretical base for Hispanic and American Indian learning styles. The final article, "College Strategic Plan Guides Emerging Diversity Program: A Case Study" (Stanley, Hendrix), takes a case study approach to examine the integration of diversity into an institution's strategic plan. Authors describe Frederick Community College's (Maryland) transformation from an institution that tolerated inclusion to one that implements it. Contains 23 references. (JA)

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ED 452 920

Vestiges

Number 3 • December 2000

Research-Based Strategies to Promote Inclusion

The Relationship between Race and Socioeconomic Status (SES): Implications for Institutional Research and Admissions Policies

by Elena M. Bernal, Alberto F. Cabrera, and Patrick T. Terenzini

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Promoting Diversity in Faculty Hiring: Navigating Dangerous Waters

by Mary K. Qualiana and Marci J. Finkelstein

Filling in the Cracks: Improving Educational Programs and Practices for American Indian and Hispanic Students

by Steven R. Aragon

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College Strategic Plan Guides Emerging Diversity Program: A Case Study

by Patricia Stanley and Beverly Hendrix

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Removing Vestiges:
Research-Based Strategies to Promote Inclusion

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Removing Vestiges seeks to provide a forum where advocacy and research can be forged into policy direction for community college leaders. The audience includes CEOs and practitioners of diversity programs in their community colleges. This publication is distributed at no charge to AACC members. Printed in the U.S.A.

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EDITOR'S NOTE

Promoting Diversity Daily

Diversity programming at many community colleges tends to be event-centered. Whether those events are annual, such as Native American Awareness Month, Martin Luther King, Jr.'s birthday, and Hispanic Awareness Month, or incidental, like responses to high-profile hate crimes or controversial speakers, they guide our planning. This strategy does have benefits. It shows that the institution is in step with the nation's cultural rhythm. It also capitalizes on the enhanced attention span that the public brings to each event. However, greater benefits can result from practicing diversity daily.

Weaving diversity into everyday life on campus can strengthen bonds between the institution and its under-represented members. Given that minorities and others who are "different" may face challenges related to their difference daily, daily efforts to address their needs shows that the institution is truly committed to their success. **Visible Commitment to diversity can also add credibility to the college's mission when the word or concept appears in its mission statement.** It shows that inclusion and cultural awareness are an intrinsic part of the institution's ethos. **Making diversity a part of an institution's essential nature shields it from legal challenge.** Institutions that implement diversity are judged by whether their policies and practices are consistent with their mission. Policies that appear to have been created in an ad hoc or arbitrary manner may be found suspect by entities such as the U.S. Department of Education's Office on Civil Rights or other stakeholders.

Removing Vestiges number 3 provides theory and practice to make diversity a part of daily activity. The first article by Elena Bernal, Alberto Cabalero, and Patrick Terenzini examines how policies that replace the use of race with nonracial socioeconomic factors affect student diversity. States like Texas and California are already forced to make policy decisions using only socioeconomic factors. The second article, by Mary Qualiana and Marci Finkelstein, looks at many of the legal questions surrounding the recruitment of a diverse faculty. They found the Community College District of Nevada's "faculty plus plan" to be permissible, but they also look at other approaches.

The third article takes another look at culturally based learning. In it, Steven Aragon provides a theoretical base for Hispanic and American Indian learning styles. Some perspectives are then offered on how to apply these types of theories to teaching. Aragon's article adds to the growing movement to adapt pedagogies class by class. The final article takes a case study approach to examine the integration of diversity into an institution's strategic plan. Patricia Stanley and Beverly Hendrix describe their college's transformation from an institution that tolerated inclusion to one that implements it.

There is no standard formula for making diversity and inclusion integral to a college. But if diversity practices are legal, integrated into the mission, well researched, and practiced daily, they would seem to have a much better chance for success and continuity.

—Arnold M. Kee, Editor

The Relationship between Race and Socioeconomic Status (SES):

Implications for Institutional Research and Admissions Policies[1]

by Elena M. Bernal,[2] Alberto F. Cabrera, and Patrick T. Terenzini

This study examined whether replacing race-based affirmative action admissions programs with class-based programs will continue to help minorities while providing the added benefit of helping poor and working-class Whites. Three NCES national databases were examined to assess the potential effects of such a shift in policy. The claim that a class-based affirmative action policy would maintain, if not improve, college participation rates among minorities was not supported. A statistically significant, but weak and declining, association between race and socioeconomic status was noted. Furthermore, low-SES Whites would disproportionately benefit from a class-based policy, compared with their low-SES minority peers, because they far outnumber minorities. Altogether, these findings are in clear contradiction to the best hopes of the advocates of class-based program advocates. The authors suggest that race-based and class-based programs are two different issues not likely to be resolved by a single policy.

The search for equity in higher education has been debated in policy and research for decades (Olivas 1997). While disagreement remains as to specific intervention strategies (St. John, Simmons and Musoba 1999a, 1999b), programs on every level from the federal to the institutional seek to eliminate deterrents to equal educational opportunities for all able and willing students. One such strategy has been the use of race-based affirmative action, relying on the legal support of the 1978 *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke* decision, which allowed race to be used as a "plus factor" when admitting new students (Bowen and Bok 1998; Gladieux 1996; Kahlenberg 1996; Olivas 1997; Trent 1992).

To redress the effects of past discrimination and foster a diverse campus community, higher education administrators and policymakers have designed affirmative action admissions policies that feature more comprehensive admissions criteria, focused recruitment, sharing of information, assistance in the application process, and targeted financial aid (Bowen and Bok 1998; Goggin 1999; Trent 1992). These affirmative efforts to correct minority underrepresentation have long been deemed necessary. Recently, however, some have claimed that they have achieved their purpose (Connerly 2000). Race, it is argued, is no longer the relevant measure of disadvantage for students desiring to enter postsecondary education (Greve 1999; Kahlenberg 1996, Wilson 1980 [1978]).

Debates over the legal standing of *Bakke* (Greve 1999; Olivas 1997), in combination with eroding public and political support for using race-based affirmative action in college admissions, have sent administrators and policymakers scrambling to find race-neutral ways to continue established institutional missions of equity and diversity. Alternative methods of college admissions include class-based affirmative action, guaranteeing college admission based on high school graduation ranks-ranging from 4 percent in Texas to 20 percent in Florida (Healy 1999, April 2; Healy 1999 March 5; Selingo 2000) and use of the merit-aware index[3] (Goggin 1999; St. John, Simmons and Musoba 1999a, 1999b). Chief among alternative policies is class-based affirmative action (Kahlenberg, 1996), primarily because of its promise to continue expanding opportunities for racial/ethnic minorities:

The reason for embracing economically based affirmative action is tactical only—to preserve as many of the benefits of race-based affirmative action as it is practically possible to preserve in an adverse environment (Fallon 1996).

The reason for embracing economically based affirmative action is tactical only—to preserve as many of the benefits of race-based affirmative action as it is practically possible to preserve in an adverse environment (Fallon 1996).

[1] This study was supported in part by grants from the College Board (412-13 CB Low Income Students, 24450) and the Association of Institutional Researchers (99-114-0). The opinions in this paper do not necessarily reflect the position, policy, or endorsement of either funding agency. The authors are indebted to Dr. Clifford Adelman for his valuable support with NCES databases. Special thanks to Dr. Marylee Taylor whose affirmative action expertise greatly facilitated the completion of this paper.

[2] The first author wishes to thank Dr. Kent McClelland whose steadfast support enabled her to continue her research up to this point.

[3] The merit-aware index adjusts a student's scores on standardized tests in relation to the average score of his or her high school. Under this approach, college eligibility would be granted to those scoring above the high school mean. See St. John, Simmons, and Musoba (1999b) for a comprehensive assessment of this index.

Class-based affirmative action is projected to continue, if not increase, benefits for minorities, who are disproportionately from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, while expanding opportunities for needy Whites. In this scenario, low socioeconomic status, as the measure of disadvantage, will broaden access to higher education. Most important, a class-based policy is considered to have the advantage of avoiding the present legal and political challenges to race-based policies while preventing the polarization of public opinion (Kahlenberg 1996).

The purpose of this study is to examine whether the expected results of class-based affirmative action policies will continue to be in accord with the goal of providing higher education for racial/ethnic minorities.[1] Specifically, we will analyze national education data to see if replacing race-based affirmative action admissions programs with class-based programs will continue to help minorities with the added benefit of helping poor and working class Whites.

Literature Review

Wilson (1980 [1978], 1987, 1996) was among the first to systematically question the necessity of race-based affirmative action programs, arguing that the significance of race was declining in terms of socioeconomic disadvantage. According to Wilson, the success of the Black middle class, however tenuous their economic status (Oliver and Shapiro 1995) or however much they were still faced with discrimination (Feagin and Sikes 1994), is a sign of the positive results of race-based policies. However, says Wilson, the very existence of middle- to upper-class Black families is proof that race-based affirmative action is no longer necessary or even beneficial to the truly disadvantaged-poor minorities. He advocates programs serving those in most economic need—those living in poverty. As support for a new approach, Wilson cites his fear that race-based affirmative action is coming under attack from a backlash to targeted programs in general.

Although controversial, Wilson's work gained currency in political and public opinion circles, giving rise to initiatives challenging race as a measure of disadvantage. By 1996, a series of court rulings and statewide ballot initiatives had banned or severely limited the use of racial preferences in admissions and hiring decisions in Texas, Louisiana, Mississippi, California, Washington, Massachusetts, Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Puerto Rico (Healy 1998a, 1998b, 1999b). Constraints on the use of race as one among many admissions criteria have led to support for class-based affirmative action as an alternative. Changes in the University of California admissions system (Kahlenberg 1996, 123) supported by Supreme Court Justices Scalia, O'Connor, and Thomas (Kahlenberg 1996, 109) reflect the growing popularity of class-based affirmative action.

Kahlenberg (1996) articulates a convincing case for implementing class-based affirmative action policies, a solution he calls *the remedy*. He supports the case for class-based affirmative action with a three-part argument: 1) it would provide genuine equal opportunity for those in most need, regardless of race; 2) it would compensate for past racial discrimination toward those most affected by it—poor minorities—thus creating natural, color-blind integration; and 3) it would anticipate the inevitable end of race- and gender-based policies which are now coming under legal and political attack. In short, Kahlenberg suggests that socioeconomic status (SES), rather than race, be used as the cornerstone for new affirmative action and equal opportunity programs.

Replacing race with class in the design of new affirmative action efforts would seem to be a win-win situation: Needy minorities continue to benefit while equal opportunity would be extended to needy Whites. Because minorities are more likely to be from lower-SES backgrounds, class-based affirmative action proponents project an increase in minority enrollments, particularly among those truly deserving of such consideration. Implicit in the expectations for a class-based approach is a high correlation between race and SES. This presumption, though yet untested, is essential to support the belief that class-based approaches address the same issues that race-based approaches do but in a more equitable and less polarizing way (Heller 1997; Kahlenberg 1996).

This study examines the effects of implementing a class-based affirmative action admissions policy on postsecondary enrollment. First, we will analyze the degree of association between race and SES among high school and postsecondary students. Second, we will project potential enrollment trends if a shift from race to socioeconomic status is implemented. Specifically, we will seek to determine whether it would maintain or increase minority and low-SES White enrollments.

Replacing race with class in the design of new affirmative action efforts would seem to be a win-win situation: Needy minorities continue to benefit while equal opportunity would be extended to needy whites.

Methodology

To examine the viability of a class-based policy in continuing or increasing minority representation in higher education, data from three National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) longitudinal databases were analyzed:

National Longitudinal Study of 1972 (NLS-72). One group was examined: first-year college students (N=1,568,214). The weight WT28 was used to create a representative sample of college students. In addition, TRIFA, a variable based on college transcripts, was used to determine the true institution of first attendance after high school graduation. No high school graduating class group was created. Our version of the NLS-72 data did not enable identification of the true high school completion date.

High School and Beyond, 1980 (HS&B:82, Sophomore Cohort). Two groups within the HSB data set were examined: high school seniors who grad-

[1] For a discussion of the need to focus on diversity missions and outcomes, instead of on past discrimination, as the basis for supporting affirmative action programs of any kind, see Alger 1998a.

uated by 1982 (weighted N= 3,113,159) and 1983 first-year college students (weighted N= 2,110,359), employing appropriate weights in accordance with Adelman's (1998) procedures for precollegiate (RAWWT) and collegiate (PSEWT1) background. Postsecondary students whose college transcripts could be verified were also included.

National Educational Longitudinal Study 1998-94 (NELS:88). Two groups were examined within the NELS data set: high school students who had graduated by 1992 (weighted N= 2,356,268) and 1994 first-year college students (weighted N=1,590,865), using the panel weight F3QWT92G. This weight adjusts the NELS:88 database to reflect the number in the population who received a high school diploma between September 1, 1991, and August 31, 1992.

To operationalize class,[1] we examined several different definitions of economic class throughout the sociological and educational literature. One common method of defining economic class relies on family income data. These data are typically self-reported, although on rare occasions financial aid records are used for verification. The incomes are then divided into intervals, often arbitrarily defined. For example, an income number that appears low may be chosen to define low-income status. Or, low-income definitions advanced by the U.S. Bureau of the Census—for example, the poverty thresholds may be used.

Another method of defining low-income status uses multiple measures to create an index of wealth, typically referred to as socioeconomic status (SES). Adelman (1999) points to the problematic nature of using income as the sole indicator of family wealth, especially when the data are self-reported. Research contrasting student's self-reported income data against parental reported income supports this observation. Fetters, Stowe, and Owins (1984), while examining the quality of responses from high school students to questionnaire items, found low levels of agreement between students and parents regarding family income and parental occupation. However, they reported high validity coefficients when income, parental education, and parental occupation were combined into a single indicator: s[illegible] economic status. Likewise, Adelman (1999) found that a single SES composite variable "washes out some (but not all) of the potential distorting effects of contradictions, anomalies, and outliers in its component parts" (p. 23). Fetters and associates' results, combined with Adelman's analyses, support using single composites that merge measures of family educational and occupational attainment and status.

For the purposes of this study, SES was used instead of raw income data for analysis. Socioeconomic status, as defined by variables within NCES data sets, includes the following measures: parental education, parental occupation, items in the home (dishwasher, books, and the like), and family income.

Analyses

The core of the case for class-based affirmative action admissions policies rests on two assumptions. First, minority enrollments will remain steady, if not increase, because minorities are disproportionately poor. Second, discrimination will be better addressed because socioeconomic attainment, or the lack thereof, is the by-product of that discrimination. Data reveal strong evidence for such expected outcomes *when examining the proportion of people from low-SES within race*. For instance, in 1995, the General Accounting Office noted that "[m]inorities are overrepresented among low-income families." According to the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1990), Black median family income was 58 percent that of White families.

The core of the case for class-based affirmative action admissions policies rests on two assumptions. First, minority enrollments will remain steady, if not increase, because minorities are disproportionately poor. Second, discrimination will be better addressed because socioeconomic attainment, or the lack thereof, is the by-product of that discrimination.

When we examined the distribution of minorities in the lowest-SES stratum who graduated from high school and attended postsecondary school during 1982-83 and 1992-94 (see table 1), we reached similar conclusions: Minorities are indeed disproportionately from low-SES backgrounds. For example, in 1982, more than half of African American and Latino high school students were low-SES in sharp contrast with 24 percent of Whites (see table 1, HSB). In 1992, the trend continued, with 35 percent of African Americans and 44 percent of Latinos coming from low-SES compared with 13 percent of Whites. High school data, in combination with national income inequality data, appear to support the notion that "race may be a proxy for income" (Heller 1997, 643).

When we examined the association between race and SES, both in high school and in postsecondary education, we found it to be statistically significant but weak (see 2). Across the three national databases encompassing three decades of students, the positive, significant association never surpasses 8 percent of shared variance between SES and race/ethnicity. In high school, the highest correlation was found in the 1982 high school cohort (4 percent shared variance) and the lowest in the 1992 high school cohort (3 percent shared variance). At the postsecondary level, the highest correlation was found in the 1972 cohort (7 percent shared variance) and lowest in the 1992 cohort (4 percent shared variance). In sum, at least 93 percent of variance in either SES or race is left unexplained. This small association, which has declined steadily over time, signifies that race is, at best, a weak predictor of socioeconomic status and vice versa.

[1] Malamud (1996) fears that class-based affirmative action policies will fail to address economic inequality if they rely on current measures of SES. In her opinion, current operationalizations of class are oversimplified, especially because they do not index major wealth components, namely ownership of assets and intergenerational transmission of class.

Table 1

Distribution of Low-SES Students within Race/Ethnicity

RACE/ETHNICITY	NLS-72	HSB 1982/83		NELS 1992/94	
	Post Secondary	High School	Post Secondary	High School	Post Secondary
Native Americans	30.7%	46.6%	45.9%	25.8%	11.7%
Asian Americans	17.3%	35.7%	33.0%	14.8%	13.9%
Latino/Hispanics	50.5%	54.7%	43.5%	43.9%	35.9%
African Americans	45.9%	54.7%	43.9%	35.3%	30.1%
Whites	8.4%	23.9%	16.2%	12.7%	6.9%

Table 2

Distribution of Race/Ethnicity within Low-SES

RACE/ETHNICITY	NELS-72	HSB 1982/83		NELS 1992/94	
	Post Secondary	High School	Post Secondary	High School	Post Secondary
Low-SES Students Within Cohort	13.0%	30.3%	21.6%	18.1%	11.8%
Native Americans	1.4%	1.8%	2.0%	1.3%	0.7%
Asian Americans	1.6%	1.7%	3.0%	3.2%	5.2%
Latino/Hispanics	11.7%	12.5%	11.6%	21.8%	24.3%
African Americans	28.9%	22.5%	23.6%	20.1%	20.1%
Whites	56.3%	61.4%	59.8%	53.6%	45.3%
Correlation	.268*	.206*	.222*	.179*	.194*
Shared Variance	7.2%	4.2%	4.9%	3.2%	3.8%

*p<.001

Table 2 reveals why the association is weak. The practice of examining SES within race masks the sheer numbers of Whites who are low-SES. Whites outnumber racial/ethnic minorities in each SES quartile. Among Whites, the proportion who are low-SES never exceeds 24 percent (see table 1); however, they constitute between 45 and 61 percent of low-SES students (see table 2). Class-based affirmative action admissions projections, based on the most recent high school graduation data (see table 2, column 5), should yield 54 Whites, 20 African Americans, 22 Latinos, 3 Asian Americans, and 1 Native American out of 100 affirmative action admits. These projections assume the best-case scenario, in which all low-SES high school graduates are able and willing to attend college.

Once college qualifications are taken into account, the likelihood that a class-based affirmative action policy would disproportionately benefit ethnic minorities all but disappears. The proportion of Whites meeting the class-based affirmative action increases from 52 percent to 56 percent while the proportion of minority class-based admits declines from 48 percent to 44 percent, once college-qualifications are considered (see table 3).

Once college qualifications are taken into account, the likelihood that a class-based affirmative action policy would disproportionately benefit ethnic minorities all but disappears.

Table 3

Percentage of College-Qualified Lowest-SES 1992 High School Graduates[1]

RACE/ETHNICITY	College-Qualified
Native Americans	0.8%
Asian Americans	4.0%
Latino/Hispanics	23.0%
African Americans	16.1%
Whites	56.1%

The 1990s high school to postsecondary education data (see table 2, columns 5 and 6) show that low-SES Whites have not fared well—dropping approximately 8 percentage points between high school and college participation. Hence, concern that low-SES Whites are having difficulties making the transition to college is founded. Low-SES minorities are close to parity, or slightly overrepresented in high school to postsecondary participation rates.

Conclusions and Implications

The moral, ethical, and philosophical issues behind equal opportunity, the value of affirmative action for any group, and the importance of a racially diversified student body will continue to be distorted. These debates are older than the nation itself (Zinn 1995). However, the argument that a class-based affirmative action policy will achieve racial diversity is empirically debatable.

[1] Developed by Berkner and Chavez (1997), the college-qualification index approximates college admissions criteria by collapsing cumulative academic course GPA, senior class rank, aptitude test scores, and the SAT and ACTS scores. Berkner and Chavez found that just meeting minimal college qualifications significantly predicts college enrollment.

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A vicious cycle of misconceptions has led to the acceptance of an untested paradigm—that race and SES are highly correlated, even interchangeable at times (General Accounting Office 1995; Kahlenberg 1996; Stampen and Cabrera 1988). Results show that using SES will neither maintain nor increase racial/ethnic diversity. The problem with a class-based policy as a viable substitute for a race-based affirmative action policy lies in the numbers. Bowen and Bok (1998) said it best:

> *While Blacks and other minorities are much more likely than Whites to come from poor families, they still make up a minority of all college-age Americans with low incomes (p. 47).*

These results do not question the validity of eliminating inability to pay as a barrier to college attendance. Higher education has been operating with a class-based policy: financial aid. Over the past 30 years, federal and state governments have invested considerable human and financial resources to achieve equality of access to and persistence in college. The federally funded Talent Search Program, for example, seeks to facilitate college choice among low-income high school students by identifying talented youths and providing them and their families with various forms of support and information. Since the passage of the Higher Education Act of 1965, a variety of federal, state, and institutional student aid programs have emerged to eliminate inability to pay as a barrier to postsecondary enrollment and the benefits associated with college attendance and degree completion (Olivas 1985; St. John 1994; Stampen and Cabrera 1988). In the early 1980s, the cost of these programs reached nearly $20 billion per year (Lewis 1989). By 1999, the cost for federally supported student aid programs had reached $46 billion, a jump of over 100 percent (College Board, 1999). The level of funding for such programs reflects the hopes they embody—of removing inability to pay as a barrier and increasing opportunities for low-income students (Hannah 1996; Heller 1997).

Our results also indicate a substantial decline in the high school graduation and college participation rates among the lowest-SES students. In 1982, 30 percent of high school graduates were low-SES compared with 18 percent in 1992, a drop of 12 percent in ten years. College participation rates also dropped from 22 percent in 1983 to 12 percent in 1994, a decline of 10 percent in 11 years. These drops correlate with increasing college costs coupled with TRIO and Head Start program cutbacks and the shift in financial aid emphasis from grants to loans experienced since the early 1980s (Lewis 1989). These drops are also consistent with research showing that low-SES students' decisions to attend college are highly sensitive to increases in tuition and/or changes in student aid packages from grants to loans (Heller 1996; Olivas 1985, 1986; St. John 1994; Windham 1984).

Race and SES are not interchangeable. The low association between SES and race/ethnicity makes SES an impractical basis for methods of achieving racial diversity in postsecondary education.

Widening educational attainment gaps may have spurred the concern to create more opportunities for low-SES students, particularly for disenfranchised Whites, by rejecting race-based affirmative action programs in favor of class-based programs. Focusing on affirmative action to help low-SES students distracts policymakers from the most obvious intervention arena—financial aid policies and programs. Further research analyzing the effects of financial aid policy changes may improve our understanding of how to increase low-SES students' access to higher education without confusing inability to pay with issues of race and discrimination.

Race and SES are not interchangeable. The low association between SES and race/ethnicity makes SES an impractical basis for methods of achieving racial diversity in postsecondary education. Our questioning the validity of SES as a substitute for race is a conclusion largely consistent with the one reached by Olivas (1997) when he examined postsecondary admission cases: "[T]here is no good proxy, no more narrowly tailored criterion, no statistical treatment that can replace race" (p. 1095).

Race-based affirmative action and class-based financial aid address two different issues. One is concerned with removing inability to pay as a barrier to equal educational opportunities; the other seeks to achieve representation and equal opportunities previously denied specifically because of race/ethnicity (Olivas 1997). Both are essential to maintaining a vibrant campus life and affording all students new learning experiences (Alger 1998a, 1998b; Bowen and Bok 1998; Chang 1999; Smith, et al. 1997). Eliminating one, race-based programs, in favor of the other, class-based programs, will not solve the problem. When race-based and class-based programs exist in tandem, representation among low-SES students of *all* races is achieved◇

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Promoting Diversity in Faculty Hiring: Navigating Dangerous Waters

by Mary K. Qualiana and Marci J. Finkelstein[1]

Introduction: The Current Situation

Today, employers seeking diversity in their employees, and educators seeking diversity in their students, are faced with a problem: Race- and sex-conscious affirmative action programs are increasingly subject to legal challenges, and these challenges are often successful. Educational institutions that seek diversity in their faculties are thus deterred, if not prohibited, from taking the most direct route to their goal, and are more and more forced to find alternate routes to reach the same end.

The current law on affirmative action is in an unusual and precarious state. On the one hand, several U.S. Supreme Court cases have established standards to determine the constitutionality of affirmative action programs. In addition, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) has published detailed guidelines on what constitutes a voluntary affirmative action plan under Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. In general, the combination of Supreme Court cases and EEOC rules guide lawyers in their handling of affirmative action cases. But, in the area of affirmative action today, they are unsure about how to proceed because it seems likely that the Supreme Court may, at any moment, change its mind and overrule past decisions, thus also invalidating the EEOC's guidance. Even if the Supreme Court does not act, legislative initiatives may change the legal landscape for affirmative action, particularly for state institutions and government contractors. In 1996, California voters enacted Proposition 209, a statewide referendum outlawing racial preferences in government hiring, and the following year, the U.S. Supreme Court refused to hear a case challenging the law's constitutionality, thus allowing the law to remain in effect. In 1998, the state of Washington passed a measure similar to Proposition 209. Other states, and some cities as well, have taken steps to follow California and Washington's lead.

Exacerbating the uncertainty about affirmative action's legal status is the public impression that judicial and legislative support for affirmative action is weakening, which has perhaps led to a greater number of legal challenges to affirmative action plans. Both the Constitution and Title VII prohibit discrimination against white people as well as minorities. Thus white people can challenge, as racially discriminatory, programs designed to benefit disadvantaged minorities. Similarly, the prohibitions of sex-based discrimination protect men as well as women, which allows men to challenge sex-conscious affirmative action. Consequently, not only do institutions trying to promote diversity in faculty hiring find themselves on shakier legal ground these days, but they also find it likelier than ever that those dissatisfied with their diversity programs will challenge those programs in court. The result has been that educational institutions and other employers face lawsuits on all sides, for implementing affirmative action and for failing to do so, for taking race and sex into account and for not doing so. The law in this area badly needs clarification.

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In 1996, it appeared that clarification—for better or worse—might be forthcoming, when the Supreme Court agreed to hear the case of *Taxman v. Board of Education of the Township of Piscataway*. In this much discussed case, a white high school teacher challenged the school board's decision to lay her off, rather than an African American teacher of equal qualifications and seniority. The board's rationale for its decision was its interest in maintaining diversity among the school's faculty. Both the District Court and the Third Circuit Court of Appeals held the race-based layoff to be a violation of Title VII, with the Third Circuit explicitly holding that achieving or maintaining diversity is not a sufficient reason for an employer to implement an affirmative action plan. Affirmative action, according to the Third Circuit, must have the purpose of remedying past or present discrimination. The school board appealed this decision, but shortly after the case was scheduled for argument in the Supreme Court the parties settled the dispute, thereby denying the Court the opportunity to clarify Title VII's definition of permissible affirmative action and whether an educational institution may rely on the goal of diversity among its faculty to justify race-based employment decisions.

Other cases currently progressing through the courts may reach the Supreme Court within the next few

[1] This article contains a general overview of the law regarding affirmative action in faculty hiring. Readers should not act on information presented herein without professional legal counsel addressing the facts and circumstances specific to their own situation.

Diversity in Tenure Decisions

Consideration of race and sex in tenure decisions is, ideally, a subject for another full article. But, speaking in general terms, many of the guidelines that apply to promoting diversity in faculty hiring are relevant to factoring diversity goals into tenure decisions as well. It is important to note, however, that the use of affirmative action in the granting of tenure may result in even greater scrutiny, both politically and legally, than affirmative action in hiring decisions. Some of the reasons for this increased scrutiny are as follows:

- Applicants for tenure have generally been employed by the institution for a number of years before they are eligible for tenure. A denial of tenure usually has the ultimate effect of ousting the applicant from the institution's faculty after he or she has invested years in the position. This situation resembles race- or sex-based firing, which the law strongly disfavors. The displaced faculty member bears a burden that appears unjust, and a court is likely to find that the affirmative action plan unnecessarily trammels the interests of the rejected faculty member, violating the standards the Supreme Court established in *United Steelworkers of America v. Weber.*
- Tenure, by definition, is essentially permanent employment (subject to certain conditions. Weber requires affirmative actions programs to be temporary. Thus, the use of affirmative action in tenure decisions may appear to produce impermissibly permanent results in the racial or sexual composition of the faculty. Although an individual decision with long-term results is not legally equivalent to a comprehensive affirmative action program that has no end date, the apparent permanence of the resulting tenured position may create tensions within the faculty and thus increase the likelihood of legal challenges and other controversy.
- Tenured positions are relatively scarce and the competition for them is fierce. Many faculty members who seek tenure will not succeed. This leaves a large pool of disappointed applicants in a culture that is increasingly suspicious of affirmative action, increasingly politicized, and increasingly litigious. Challenges to race- or sex-based tenure decisions, whether in the courts or the media, are thus increasingly likely.

years, however. Two challenges to affirmative action programs in student admissions at the University of Michigan have yet to go to trial, while *Hopwood v. Texas (1996),* in which the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals struck down the University of Texas Law School's race-conscious admissions program, continues to wend its way through further appeals. And numerous lawsuits over employment-related affirmative action programs (both within educational institutions and otherwise) are working their way through the court system at any time. Challenges by white people to affirmative action programs that they believe deny them deserved employment or educational opportunities are not new, but they are increasing. And many courts are becoming more receptive to these challenges.

Thus, the current situation is a precarious one for those who want to continue efforts to increase diversity in their workplaces and educational institutions, both because the law regarding affirmative action is on shaky ground and liable to change dramatically at any time and because opinions in this area are polarizing, with the result that those who feel strongly on one side or the other are becoming increasingly litigious. This does not suggest that all efforts to attain diversity among faculty must be halted; a college or university can strive for a diverse faculty in several ways, some of which have been expressly sanctioned by the courts or the EEOC and some of which have been implemented and have gone unchallenged. Of course, many approaches have been struck down by the courts or prohibited by legislation, and new approaches may ultimately be barred as well.

This, of course, does not suggest that all efforts to attain diversity among faculty must be halted; a college or university can strive for a diverse faculty in several ways, some of which have been expressly sanctioned by the courts or the EEOC and some of which have been implemented and have gone unchallenged.

Impermissible Affirmative Action

Despite the overall uncertainty in this area of the law, there are a few practices that are clearly impermissible and a few that (at least in the appropriate circumstances) are clearly permissible. Any program based on a strict quota is prohibited, except in very rare cases where quotas are mandated by the court or agreed to in consent decrees as necessary

Cases to Watch

Where race-conscious educational policies are being challenged:

Georgia
Board of Regents of the University of Georgia, and Hester, et al. v. Johnson, et al. (11th Circuit) Undergraduate admissions decisions. On appeal from U.S. District Court.

Michigan
Gratz v. Bollinger; Grutter v. Bollinger (U.S. District Court) Undergraduate and law school admissions. Trials beginning Dec. 2000 and Jan. 2001.

Texas
Hopwood v. Texas (5th Circuit). Educational policy in higher education. Appeal in process.

Washington
Smith v. University of Washington Law School (9th Circuit). Law school admissions.

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remedies for particularly egregious discrimination. The decision in *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke (1978)* recognized the need for diversity as justification for affirmative action in university admissions, and this remains the controlling Supreme Court law on this issue. Nevertheless, the University of California Medical School program challenged in *Bakke* was struck down because of the structure of the program: it set aside a certain number of admissions positions for prospective students whose applications were considered through a special minorities-only process. The Court refused to endorse such a system because some positions were off-limits to applicants of a certain race.

The more recent Supreme Court cases of *City of Richmond v. J. A. Croson Co. (1989)* and *Adarand Constructors, Inc. v. Pena (1995)* considered affirmative action programs in government construction contracts. *Croson* struck down a state program that required general contractors working with the government to subcontract at least 30 percent of each project to minority-owned businesses. The affirmative action program at issue in *Adarand* consisted of a discount to general contractors who subcontracted out to small businesses controlled by socially and economically disadvantaged individuals, with a statutory presumption that minority-owned businesses fall within this definition. Although this was not an explicit set-aside program, the Court ruled that the program would be constitutional only if it passed strict scrutiny, a standard that requires race-based government programs only if they are narrowly tailored to meet a compelling government interest. This standard is very difficult to meet; consequently, most governmental programs—including those of public universities—in which race is an explicit factor in determining eligibility are at substantial risk of being struck down as unconstitutional.

In addition, although the race- or sex-based discharge of employees has not been explicitly prohibited, some courts have suggested that such firings should be treated differently from race- or sex-based hiring. A plurality of the Supreme Court noted in *Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education (1986)* that "while hiring goals impose a diffuse burden, often foreclosing only one of several opportunities, layoffs impose the entire burden of achieving racial equality on particular individuals." In *Wygant*, the Court struck down a public school's provision that modified the "last hired, first fired" system so that race was explicitly considered, in order to prevent layoffs from disproportionately affecting newly hired minority teachers. The Third Circuit Court of Appeals, in the *Taxman* case, also noted the significance of the difference between hiring and firing. There has been no explicit ruling that race or sex can never be considered in firing, but these cases suggest that this may be even more hazardous territory than affirmative action in hiring.

Consequently, programs that, for example, attempt to set aside a faculty position (perhaps an endowed chair), a visiting professorship, or even a teaching assistant slot as a minority position would, in almost all circumstances, be held to be a violation of Title VII and, in the case of a state institution, the Constitution. Likewise, programs that on paper (or in theory) consider applicants regardless of race or sex, but that in reality are used as a minority or female set-aside, would also be likely to be found in violation of the law.

Definitions

strict scrutiny
the highest level of judicial scrutiny that is applied (esp. to a law that allegedly violates equal protection) in order to determine if it is narrowly tailored to serve a compelling state interest.

compelling state interest
a governmental interest (as in educating children or protecting the public) which is so important that it outweighs individual rights.

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Permissible Affirmative Action

On the other hand, for some employers, affirmative action is not only permitted, it is mandatory. Executive Order 11246 requires government contractors with contracts for $50,000 or more per year and 50 or more employees—a category that can include universities that have significant government contracts in research and other programs—to establish a written affirmative action plan under guidelines published by the Department of Labor's Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP). Because the Executive Order requires these employers to implement an affirmative action plan, challenges to employment actions based on the plan are subject to a special process. In such a case, the EEOC will defer to the OFCCP in deciding whether there is any Title VII violation. If the OFCCP has reviewed and approved the plan and the employer has followed the plan, the EEOC will find no probable cause that a violation of Title VII has occurred. If the OFCCP has not reviewed the plan, the EEOC will ask it to do so, and again, if the OFCCP approves the plan and the plan has been followed, the EEOC will issue a no-cause finding.

For employers who are not government contractors but want to set up voluntary affirmative action programs, Supreme Court decisions and EEOC rules dictate a series of steps that, if followed, will avoid a Title VII violation. In the 1979 case *United Steelworkers of America v. Weber*, the Supreme Court held that voluntary affirmative action programs do not violate Title VII so long as they meet

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several tests. First, the program must be consistent with the statute's purpose of improving the social and economic conditions of minorities and women by providing equal opportunity in employment. Second, it must not "unnecessarily trammel" the rights of white/male employees, and it must be a temporary measure. When the program sets aside positions for minorities or women, it must have a definite, explicit endpoint. If, however, the number of positions to be set aside is not specified but the evidence shows a moderate, gradual approach to eliminating a serious imbalance, rather than an effort to maintain a permanent racial balance, the absence of an explicit endpoint will not necessarily invalidate the affirmative action program, as the Supreme Court held in *Johnson v. Transportation Agency of Santa Clara County (1987)*.

The EEOC has also issued detailed guidelines specifying the bounds of permissible affirmative action. These guidelines, titled "Affirmative Action Appropriate Under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act," require, first, that an affirmative action plan and the findings that justify it be in writing. Before setting up an affirmative action plan, the employer must conduct a self-analysis. That is, the employer must compare its workforce statistics (the race and sex of the employees) in its various job classifications against the statistics (again, race and sex) for qualified individuals in the relevant labor pool. Then the employer must determine whether the self-analysis demonstrates a "manifest imbalance." Manifest imbalance is not a precise term, but it is clear that the imbalance need not amount to a Title VII violation. (If it were otherwise, employers would have no incentive to implement affirmative action plans voluntarily, which would undermine Title VII's purpose.) The EEOC and others test for a manifest imbalance by applying an 80 percent rule, which says that a manifest imbalance exists when the percentage of a particular group in the workforce is less than 80 percent of that group's proportion of the relevant labor pool. If a manifest imbalance exists, the employer must try to determine its cause.

The source of the imbalance determines what types of remedial steps the employer is permitted to take; the actions taken must be reasonable in relation to both the extent of the imbalance and its causes. If the imbalance is due to lingering effects of past discrimination (that is, historical restrictions on a particular group), the affirmative action plan can mandate any or all of the following steps:

- the implementation of training programs designed to help minorities and women develop the skills and experience they need to advance in a trade or profession;
- the targeting of recruitment at underrepresented groups;
- the elimination of selection criteria that tend to screen out the underrepresented groups, if the criteria are not validated by external sources; and
- the modification of promotion or layoff procedures as necessary.

If the imbalance is due instead to current employment practices that tend to exclude the underrepresented groups, the affirmative action plan can take stronger steps designed to eliminate the exclusionary practices and reverse their effects by increasing the percentage of members of the underrepresented group selected. Permissible remedies in such a case can include:

- giving preferential treatment to the targeted group, through short- and long-term hiring goals;
- implementing targeted recruitment programs;
- redesigning positions to promote skill and career advancement; and
- modifying selection criteria so as to eliminate non-validated criteria that also trigger adverse effects.

In addition, the employer can and should establish a system to monitor the affirmative action program's effectiveness and adjust the program where necessary to make it effective.

When evaluating such a voluntary affirmative action plan, the EEOC considers whether the plan is tailored to solve the problems identified and

Reviewing the Affirmative Action Plan Every Year

Executive Order 11246 requires federal contractors to implement affirmative action plans. The Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP), which enforces the government contractor affirmative action plan regulations, requires employers to review and update all such plans annually. Thus, in some respects, drafting a government contractor affirmative action plan is an annual process.

Although no such requirement exists in the case of voluntary affirmative action plans, a yearly review is advisable for several reasons. First, institutions should review their plans to ensure they are consistent with the law. Because the law on affirmative action continues to change rapidly, a plan that is permissible one year may be impermissible a year later. The risk of litigation should motivate employers to stay up to date on the legal changes and ascertain their plans' consistency with current law.

Second, institutions should review their plans to ensure that their goals and targets remain appropriate for the workplace's needs. Voluntary affirmative action plans must be specifically targeted toward resolving particular workplace imbalances, and the remedial measures must be stopped when the imbalance has been resolved. Thus, even in the absence of new legal rules, changes in the faculty's composition may require the institution to reconsider and reform its approach to diversity. A successful affirmative action plan must be ended when it has achieved its goals, while a plan that has no impact or obtains negative results may need to be revamped so that it will achieve the institution's goals. To be legally defensible, a plan must be not only necessary, but also able to meet the need. Thus, it is important that institutions review their plans not only for legality but for effectiveness, and revise the plans accordingly.

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whether the employment policies will operate fairly in the future. The plan must avoid unnecessary restrictions on opportunities for the workforce as a whole and can be maintained only until its objectives are achieved. In addition, all goals and timetables should relate to the cause of the imbalance, as determined by the employer's self-analysis, and should take into consideration the number of openings available and the number of qualified applicants in the relevant labor pool.

What Options for Promoting Diversity Remain?

As a result of the increase in challenges to affirmative action plans, many employers and educational institutions are experimenting with new ways of achieving diversity. Some approaches use race or gender explicitly, but do so in ways different from those of prior programs. These approaches, if challenged, would be subject to heightened judicial scrutiny; thus the goal of the employers and educational institutions using them is to structure programs that are less likely to be challenged. Other approaches consider criteria other than race and sex in an effort to attain diversity of different types, sometimes achieving diversity of race and sex as well.

Some educational institutions, such as the University and Community College System of Nevada, have adopted "minority bonus plans," whereby a department that fills a vacancy with a minority candidate is allowed to hire an additional faculty member. An institution implementing such a program would likely be required to meet the EEOC guidelines for voluntary affirmative action. Assuming that the plan is appropriately designed to remedy the institution's imbalance and that the plan is followed, such a system should satisfy both Title VII and the Equal Protection Clause of the Constitution. Also permitted are targeted outreach to and recruiting of minority and women candidates. Thus institutions can advertise open positions in publications whose audiences are made up of minorities or women, can recruit at job fairs designed to attract minorities or women, and can disseminate information about opportunities at the institution through organizations with predominantly minority or women members, provided that the institution also engages in broader recruiting likely to attract nonminority candidates as well.

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In addition, an affirmative action program can be based explicitly on criteria other than race and sex. As noted above, challenges to affirmative action have been based on the constitutional and statutory prohibitions of discrimination based on race and sex; as a result, affirmative action based on race and sex is analyzed under the same strict standards as are applied to discrimination against historically disadvantaged racial minorities and women. In contrast, discrimination based on conditions that are not protected by the Constitution or Title VII is analyzed under judicial standards that are quite different. Consequently, affirmative action for unprotected classes of people is treated with a great deal of deference by the courts. Paradoxically, then, affirmative action programs are both less likely to be challenged and more likely to withstand legal challenges if they are based on criteria other than race and sex. Some programs designed for those in unprotected classes may lead indirectly to racial and sexual diversity, and some may lead to diversity along scales other than race and sex. Unprotected classes include socioeconomic class, sexual orientation, geographic origin (so long as it is not national origin, which is protected to the same extent as race), displaced homemaker status, veteran status, and others. However, an institution implementing a program seeking greater diversity along these lines should be careful that these are the true grounds used for selection, so as to avoid the argument that the program is just a subterfuge for reverse discrimination.

Conclusion

Although race- and sex-conscious affirmative action is being challenged more and more and rests on shifting legal ground, there is still much that educational institutions can do to achieve a diverse faculty. First, colleges and universities need to—and most already do—remember that diversity applies not only to race and sex, but to other conditions as well. Affirmative action programs based on such other conditions are less likely to be challenged, and any challenges they do meet are less likely to succeed. In addition, the broader the range of disadvantaged or underrepresented classes (including racial minorities and women) the institution seeks out and considers, the more its consideration of race and sex will be seen as one factor among many, and the harder its program will be to challenge.

A college or university that wishes to continue affirmative action programs that are explicitly based on race or sex should consider whether it qualifies as a government contractor, and is thus required by Executive Order 11246 to implement an affirmative action plan. If not, the institution should follow the steps outlined in the EEOC guidelines to determine and document its need for affirmative action and structure a plan that will address the specific causes of the institution's imbalance. Most important, institutions must make an effort to be aware of the law and the rules that apply to them, and to stay aware as the law changes◇

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Filling In the Cracks: Improving Educational Programs and Practices for American Indian and Hispanic Students

by Steven Aragon

According to the Bureau of the Census (1998), racial and ethnic minorities make up about 28 percent of the U.S. population. Today, minority students account for almost one quarter (24 percent) of postsecondary-education students. In the larger picture of American higher education, community colleges play a significant role in providing access to educational opportunities for a diverse clientele. Consequently, educators must achieve cultural literacy and cross-cultural communicative competency to educate all student groups effectively. This article reports on the learning styles of two minority groups—American Indians and Hispanics—and offers recommendations to help these students to learn.

Whether they study in an institution of higher education or in a private, public, or nonprofit organization, students are expected to learn and to be able to apply what they have learned. In view of current demographic realities, providing access to educational opportunities for students from various cultures and socioeconomic backgrounds requires institutions to rethink their curricula, testing practices, methods of instruction, counseling techniques, and delivery systems of other specific services (Clark and Waltzman 1993; Dunn and Griggs 1995). Specifically, educators must achieve cultural literacy and cross-cultural communicative competency to educate all student groups effectively (Ball 1999; Clark and Cheng 1993; Wlodkowski 1999a, 1999b; Wlodkowski and Ginsberg 1995).

According to the Bureau of the Census (1998), racial and ethnic minorities make up about 28 percent of the U.S. population. This number is projected to grow to 47 percent by 2050. Consequently, the term "minority" is losing its statistical meaning as a new majority rapidly emerges, made up of African, Hispanic, and Asian Americans, and American Indians (Rendon and Hope 1996).

Minority students account for almost one quarter (24 percent) of postsecondary-education students (National Center for Education Statistics 1998; O'Brien and Zudak 1998). This enrollment breaks down as follows: African American, 12 percent; Hispanic American, 9 percent; American Indian, 0.8 percent; and Asian American, 3 percent. During the period 1976–94, postsecondary enrollment increased nearly 30 percent, with minority students accounting for more than half of this gain. National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) data as reported in O'Brien and Zudak (1998) reveal that in 1994, one thousand institutions enrolled almost two-thirds of all minority students.

In the larger picture of American higher education, community colleges play a significant role in providing access to educational opportunities for a diverse clientele. Each fall, approximately half of all minority undergraduates enrolled in institutions of higher education attend a community college. Since these students come from all age groups and from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds, it can be said that community college campuses reflect the diversity of the American population. Furthermore, besides providing the primary means of access to higher education for minorities, community colleges are the schools of choice for these students (American Association of Community Colleges 1998).

According to the Bureau of the Census (1998), racial and ethnic minorities make up about 28 percent of the U.S. population. This number is projected to grow to 47 percent by 2050. Consequently, the term "minority" is losing its statistical meaning as a new majority rapidly emerges, made up of African, Hispanic, and Asian Americans, and American Indians

An emerging issue in higher education is the use of research in learning styles to create more positive, effective learning environments for all students. In the past, however, such research in the United States has focused primarily on examining individual learning style preferences among white male students from middle-class backgrounds. Recently, with the increase in social and cultural diversity in college classrooms, researchers have begun to question to what extent cultural differences affect learning styles (Anderson 1988; Aragon 1996; Ball 1999; Brown, Collins, and Duguid 1989; Hofstede 1986; Oxford, Hollaway, and Horton-Murillo 1992; Sanchez 1996).

This article examines the program and policy implications for community colleges for improving American Indian and Hispanic education that follow from the research carried out on learning styles. It

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begins with an overview of a comprehensive learning style theory. Next, it provides an overview of the current research on American Indian and Hispanic learning styles. Last, it offers ideas, suggestions, and solutions for strengthening education and related services to these two minority student groups.

Theoretical Model of Learning Style

The research presented in this paper was based on Curry's (1991) Theoretical Model of Learning Style Components and Effects (see figure 1). Curry submits that there are three constructs that influence learning style and/or successful learning: maintenance of motivation, level of task engagement, and specific information-processing habits (cognitive control functions).

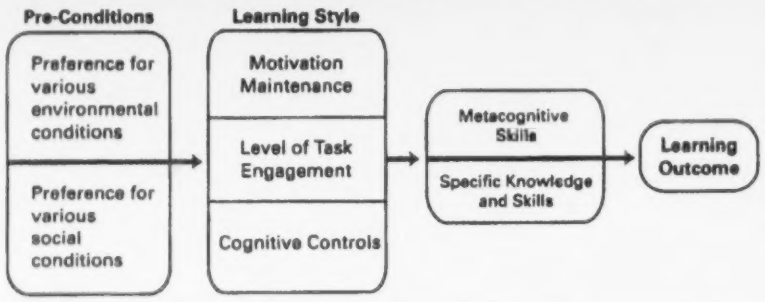
A student's motivation to learn must be based on a general sense of competency and self-control. According to Curry, a learner is able to maintain motivation once the preferred environmental and social conditions for learning have been established. Among these environmental conditions are optimal levels of quiet, heat, and light, which may vary among individual students and among student groups. Social conditions are such things as interaction between teacher and student and collaboration between students. Altering physical environmental and social conditions to suit the student may have a direct bearing on his or her motivation to learn.

Curry defines the level of task engagement as "the point of contact between the motivational condition of the learner entering the learning situation and the active processing work required by the new learning task" (p. 251). The level of engagement in the intended learning behavior is influenced by the learner's prior history with learning situations similar to the new one encountered. A learner's level of task engagement is reflected in the amount of attention that is paid to features in the instructional situation, how persistent the learner is, and the degree of participation, enthusiasm, and concentration the learner sustains throughout and beyond the instructional situation.

Altering physical environmental and social conditions to suit the student may have a direct bearing on his or her motivation to learn.

Figure 1

Curry's Theoretical Model of Learning Style Components and Effects



By "cognitive controls" Curry means the information-processing habits or control systems that the learner brings to learning situations. These controls "represent patterns of thinking that control the ways that individuals process and reason about information" (Jonassen and Grabowski 1993, 83), resulting in their ability to make sense of the world. In their comprehensive review of the literature, Jonassen and Grabowski have identified a number of these habits or control systems that have been identified by psychologists studying individual differences.

This model of learning style presents a way in which to link learner motivation, task engagement, and cognitive control. "The suggested connection is that engagement implies intention and willingness to stay focused on a particular learning task in a particular learning situation" (Curry 1991, 252). Motivation must be maintained to keep this connection between the three components. The level of task engagement permits information processing using whatever level of cognitive control the learner has mastered. Learning style itself, therefore, can be thought of as the combination of the learner's motivation, task engagement, and information-processing habits.

These three components of learning style interact to make use of previously learned metacognitive skills, such as situation analysis planning, self-pacing, and self-evaluation, and the specific knowledge and skills learned in the instructional situation to produce a detectable learning outcome. "By this model, investigators using learning outcomes as dependent variables must simultaneously measure metacognitive skills and the specific levels of required knowledge and skills in order to tease out effects of learning style" (Curry 1991, 252).

Jonassen and Grabowski's Control Systems for Learning

Field Dependence—Independence
Leveling—Sharpening
Formation of Concepts—Perception
Scanning—Focusing
Cognitive Complexity—Simplicity
Reflectiveness—Impulsiveness
Tolerance—Intolerance

According to Curry, these cognitive controls operate only after the learner has become engaged in the task.

Overview of American Indian and Hispanic Learning Styles

Motivation of maintenance characteristics. Both American Indian and Hispanic students report a preference for environments that are collaborative/interpersonal, teacher structured, and promote the learning of tangible, specific, and practical (concrete) tasks and skills (Aragon, Sanchez, and Boverie 1999). High levels of feedback also help these students maintain their motivation to learn. It is after these social and environmental conditions have been established

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that they are able to move on to the next level of learning.

Task engagement characteristics. As with maintenance of motivation, American Indian and Hispanic students were found to be very similar with respect to their learning and study skills, attitudes toward education, and motivation and anxiety levels (Aragon, Sanchez, and Boverie 1999). Both groups of students reported average abilities in the learning and study skill areas of time management, concentration, information processing, use of study aids, and self-testing. At the same time, attitude toward and motivation for educational success/achievement, along with test-taking ability, were low, although all three were found not to be as low for Hispanic as for American Indian students. Anxiety levels within educational environments were found to be high for both student groups, and the skill area of selecting main ideas/recognizing important information was found to border the low/average cutoff points for both groups. Both American Indian and Hispanic students are characterized as reflective learners, which means their responses are based on careful thought and research.

Cognitive controls. The information processing habits of American Indian and Hispanic postsecondary students include watching, listening, and relying on feelings (Aragon, Sanchez, and Boverie 1999). Both groups of students are identified as field dependent, meaning that they process information by looking at the whole (global) rather than at the smaller components or pieces (analytic). One difference that has been observed between these groups is that American Indian students focus their perception and judgment on people and objectives, whereas Hispanic students focus their perception and judgment on concepts and ideas. In addition, American Indian students use a perceptive process for dealing with the outer world, whereas Hispanic students use a judgment process.

Policy Implications and Recommendations

Seek to understand. We hear much discussion of the importance of "awareness" in minority education, but too often this word is just a substitute for action. If we truly wish to educate our minority students more effectively, we must first find out exactly who they are demographically, what their particular learning styles are, and what problems they are likely to encounter in acquiring an education. The difficulty with this recommendation is that we know very little about the learning styles and preferences of postsecondary minority students, since most research on learning styles of minorities, especially American Indians and Hispanics, has been done on elementary students (Aragon 1996; Sanchez 1996). Consequently, it is unclear how or even whether the current findings apply to postsecondary and adult education. This means that we must *all* conduct research into ways to improve education for these students. This can be done through dialogue, reflection, and asking questions both independently and collaboratively

American Indian students focus their perception and judgment on people and objectives, whereas Hispanic students focus their perception and judgment on concepts and ideas.

(Preskill and Torres 1999). More important, we must identify and clarify our existing values, beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge regarding education, its goals and purposes. (See *Transforming Classroom Practice for African American Learners: Implications for the Learning Paradigm* by I. McPhail in *Removing Vestiges #2*)

Examine current instructional strategies. Because these two groups of learners have similar learning styles or preferences, the approaches, methods, and strategies of curriculum design and delivery can essentially be the same for both groups. It is recommended that educators strive to create a collaborative and interpersonal environment that is "orchestrated" by the instructors rather than by the learners themselves. Such an environment would allow learners to capitalize on their cognitive abilities. For these two groups of learners, this involves processing information by watching, listening, and examining their own feelings.

In classrooms where students are rewarded for fast responses or active involvement in the learning process, which is the situation in most schools and colleges today, American Indian and Hispanic students may be passed over because their tendency is to learn by observation and introspection, not by active participation. Educators need to acknowledge that their way of learning is legitimate and begin not only to accommodate it but also to reward it.

Help improve learning and study skill practices. The second recommendation derives from the results associated with the task engagement construct. In the study upon which this paper is based, a total of 16 different learning and study skill strategies were measured (Aragon, Sanchez, and Boverie 1999). Based on scoring protocols and the mean distribution for each of the 16 task engagement scales, both American Indian and Hispanic learners have, at best, average or moderate learning and study skill abilities, only a few of which are discussed here. The point is, however, that all of these skills are needed to be successful in higher education. In addition, these skills should reflect much stronger abilities than they currently do. Educators can assist these learners by helping them strengthen their performance in these various skill areas. One way of accomplishing this is through the use of a learning and study skills course. Another is through the integration of learning

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and study skills within the regular classroom curriculum. Institutions are also encouraged to develop and implement a student success course.

Success courses (formally known as orientation courses) have been suggested as the most effective intervention to enhance student success. As Stovall (1999) says, these types of courses "provide support to facilitate students' transitions to college and promote their academic and social integration into the college by helping them develop the information, skills, and behaviors needed for academic success" (p. 43). Improved academic performance and increased retention among minority students have been the results of implementing such a course.

For a comprehensive overview of success courses as well as specific ideas about design, development, and implementation, see Stovall (1999).

Help strengthen all learning abilities. Finally, educators must help these students strengthen their abilities in all areas of learning. The purpose of higher education is to help younger and older adults become better citizens of society and prepare them for the world of work. Society and work do not cater to just one style of learning. Consequently, all learners need to be prepared to approach learning from a holistic perspective, using skills and abilities that may be outside their comfort zones. Educators must create safe learning environments and activities that challenge the students' "status quo," enabling them to strengthen existing skills yet at the same time develop new ones. Accomplishing this will be a challenge for educators as well as for students, since the way we learned and the way we were taught in the past influences our current classroom practices.

Conclusion

Educational institutions should view diversity in their students as an asset. Through diversity, learning experiences for both students and faculty are enriched, broadening perspectives and promoting flexibility in thinking. By seeking to understand the learning style preferences and patterns of a diverse student population, educators will have taken the first step toward creating more positive, effective learning environments that acknowledge, accept, and promote cultural diversity◇

Topics related to the development of learning and study strategies include the following (Stovall 1999):

- the value of education
- study, note-taking, and test-taking strategies
- motivation, decision making, and goal setting
- self-assessment and goal setting
- career exploration
- career, academic, and life planning
- time management
- establishing rewarding relationships
- stress management for a healthy lifestyle

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APPENDIX

On the application of diverse learning styles to the classroom

Learning Styles and Preferences

1. Cultural transitions can be created for students by providing opportunities for them to link their personal experiences to the learning environment.
2. Learning will be most successful when there is a recognition of and respect for different cultural styles of communication in the learning environment.
3. Sensitivity to cultural differences is just as important as the recognition that all learners from particular cultures are individuals and do not necessarily share similar patterns of expectations or behavior.
4. Different approaches to learning and processing information do not imply different abilities to learn.
5. A range of instructional styles is necessary to facilitate learning for the wide range of student learning styles.
6. Approaches to learning can be modified through strategy instruction in order to increase the learner's repertoires and consequently their opportunities to succeed across a range of environments.

Silverman, S. and Casazza, M. 1999. Learning & Development
San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Native American Learner and Bi-cultural Science Education

"In native American society, learning how to hunt is a programmed sequence of observations and experiences tied to a process:

- Learning the habits of the animal to be hunted-via mythology, listening, and observation
- Learning how to track, read appropriate signs, and stalk the animal—via observation, intuition, and reasoning
- Learning the appropriate respect and ritual that is to be extended to the animal—via a "mind-set"
- Learning how to care properly for the carcass of the animal once it has been taken—via an ecological ethic and technology
- Learning how to utilize fully the various parts of the animal taken—via technology

All of these processes require a variety of teaching techniques that range from formal instruction to experiential learning. They must take place within a particular contextual framework necessary for conveying these forms of knowledge.

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LEARNING STYLES RESEARCH

An expanding body of research affirms that teaching and counseling students with interventions that are congruent with the students' learning-style preferences result in their increased academic achievement and more positive attitudes toward learning. Research on the learning styles of Hispanic-Americans in particular, however, is limited. Within the Latino groups, the majority of studies have focused on the learning styles of Mexican-American elementary school children. Several investigations (Dunn, Griggs, & Price, 1993; Jalali, 1988; Sims, 1988; Yong and Ewing, 1992) have compared various ethnic groups of students in elementary school through college levels using a measure that identifies 21 elements of learning style grouped into five categories.

1. ENVIRONMENTAL LEARNING STYLE elements include sound, temperature, design, and light. A cool temperature and formal design were identified as important elements for Mexican-American elementary and middle school students (Dunn, Griggs, & Price, 1993; Jalali, 1988; Yong & Ewing, 1992).
2. EMOTIONAL LEARNING STYLE elements include responsibility, structure, persistence, and motivation. Sims (1988) reported that Mexican-American third- and fourth-graders were the least conforming of three ethnic groups studied. Yong and Ewing (1992), however, found that Mexican-American middle-school adolescents were conforming. The disparities between these data may result from subjects' age, lifestyle, and urban/rural differences in the two studies. Both of these studies reported that Mexican-Americans required a higher degree of structure than did other groups.

3. SOCIOLOGICAL LEARNING STYLE elements are concerned with the social patterns in which one learns. Learning alone (as opposed to in groups) was preferred more by Caucasian students than by Mexican American children (Dunn & Dunn, 1992, 1993) and more by Mexican Americans students than by African-American children (Sims, 1988). Mexican American students required significantly more sociological variety than either African Americans or Caucasians (Dunn, Griggs, & Price, 1993; Jalali, 1989). Mexican American males were authority-oriented and Mexican American females were strongly peer-oriented (Dunn, Griggs, & Price, 1993).

4. PHYSIOLOGICAL LEARNING STYLE elements relate to time of day, food and drink intake, perception, and mobility. Puerto Rican college students exhibit a strong preference for learning in the late morning, afternoon, and evening. The time-of-day preferences of Mexican Americans are less clear. Sims (1988) found that Caucasians preferred drinking or eating snacks while learning significantly more than did Mexican Americans. Yong and Ewing (1992) reported that Latinos' strongest perceptual strength was kinesthetic. Both Caucasians and African American were significantly more auditory and visual than Mexican Americans (Dunn, Griggs, & Price, 1993; Sims, 1988). The study by Sims (1988) indicated that Caucasian students exhibited a higher need for mobility than did Mexican American students. Contrary to findings for the U.S. general population, Mexican American females had a significantly higher need for mobility than their male counterparts (Dunn, Griggs, & Price, 1993).

5. PSYCHOLOGICAL LEARNING STYLE elements relate to global versus analytical processing. The construct of field dependence/independence is a component of this learning style. Field-dependent individuals are more group-oriented and cooperative and less competitive than field independent individuals. Research generally has indicated that Mexican-American and other minority students are more field dependent than nonminority students. Hudgens (1993) found that Hispanic middle and secondary school students were more field dependent than Anglo students; Hispanic female (and African-American male) students had a greater internal locus of control than other groups; and Hispanic male (and African American female) students had a greater external locus of control than other groups.

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELING AND TEACHING

Based on the research examined above, teachers and counselors should expect larger numbers of Hispanic students to prefer: (1) a cool environment; (2) conformity; (3) peer-oriented learning; (4) kinesthetic instructional resources; (5) a high degree of structure; (6) late morning and afternoon peak energy levels; (7) variety as opposed to routines; and (8) a field-dependent cognitive style. Teachers and counselors should be aware of cultural group characteristics; for the most responsive teaching and counseling strategies, however, they should emphasize the learning style strengths of each individual and try to match instructional resources and methods to individual environmental, emotional, physiological, and psychological preferences.

Griggs, S. and R. Dunn. 1996. Hispanic American Students and Learning Style. ERIC Digest. Urbana, IL.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education (Adapted from: Griggs, S., and R. Dunn. (1995). Hispanic-American Students and Learning Style. EMERGENCY LIBRARIAN 23(2, Nov-Dec): 11-16. Adapted with permission of EMERGENCY LIBRARIAN and the authors.)

College Strategic Plan Guides Emerging Diversity Program: A Case Study

by Patricia Stanley and Beverly Hendrix

Introduction

Frederick Community College (FCC) is a medium-sized comprehensive community college located in and serving the citizens of Frederick County, Maryland. The demographics of the county are rapidly changing, in large part because of the proximity of the extremely diverse populations of Washington, D.C., Baltimore, Maryland, and Montgomery County, Maryland. Frederick County is one of the four fastest-growing counties in Maryland, and its population is expected to grow even more rapidly and become even more diverse in the future. Currently the ethnic makeup of the college population is more varied than that of the county it serves. The need for a program that addresses diversity became evident to the college as the entire college community began to develop a five-year strategic plan based on a vision for the future.

This case study will provide a framework for other community colleges to adapt or adopt as they too plan to address an educational mission that includes open access for all who desire postsecondary education in their communities and service areas. The mission of Frederick Community College is to "prepare students to meet the challenges of a diverse, global society through quality, accessible, innovative, lifelong education. We are a student-centered, community-focused college. FCC offers degrees, certificates, and programs for workforce preparation, transfer, and personal enrichment to enhance the quality of life and economic development of our area." The college strategic plan, its vision and directions, flow from the mission statement. These have positioned FCC to make diversity a college priority, develop a diversity plan and program, hire a director of diversity, and assume a leadership role in the community related to diversity issues.

This case study is divided into eight supporting sections. First, the **Program Origin** relates some college history supporting a need for a plan that addresses diversity issues. Second, the **Justification** section details the current situation in the community and state, as well as at the college, which contributed significantly to the need for an aggressive diversity program at this institution. Next, the **Strategic Planning** process and the resulting college plan illustrate the premise of this case study; that is, that the appropriate diversity program will evolve when the campus community is part of and "buys into" the strategic planning process and results. The fourth section, **Emerging Diversity Program,** cites research that underscores the benefits of tackling such an initiative. The **Implementation** section of the case study follows and details the goals in the diversity implementation plan, how they relate to the strategic plan, and provides examples of activities that are used to support diversity goals. Also included is a description of the role of the director of diversity, and the related campus and community committees with which she works. The **Assessment** section describes the methods and strategies that will aid in evaluating and measuring results of the diversity program implementation. The case study concludes with a list of **Lessons Learned** from the experience of utilizing the college strategic plan as the basis for a diversity program and the **Obstacles** that must be overcome if true success and a positive climate for diversity are to be realized.

Program Origin

As background for the case study, a brief chronological presentation of influences on the current plan and program appears below:

In 1986, the Middle States site team visiting FCC stated in their report that

> *An Affirmative Action Committee needs to be appointed and charged with updating the plan for approval by the President and the Board of Trustees. . . . Given an institutional commitment to internal promotion and affirmative action, the selection process for part-time employees needs review.*

In 1996, the college identified a director of diversity as the first priority for a new campus position, and the visiting site team for the next Middle States Accreditation reported that

> *The College has an affirmative action plan, and it has succeeded in increasing the proportion of female employees but not the percentage of minorities. . . . Energetic and creative efforts should be seriously considered in improving the percentage of minority employees, particularly among the faculty and administrative staff. . . . New practices and procedures may have to be employed that can have a measurable impact.*

In 1997–98, a faculty task force was appointed. It submitted recommendations addressing full and adjunct faculty staffing from a diversity point of view.

In January 1998, a new president, with a suitable background in diversity, was appointed by the board of trustees and charged with meeting their priority of addressing diversity in light of both the recent accreditation report citation and ongoing changes in the community served by FCC. The college, also in 1998,

approved a definition of diversity, formulated in the span of a year, that all could embrace. That definition is

> *Diversity at Frederick Community College encompasses respecting and valuing the wide range of cultural, racial and ethnic backgrounds, human conditions and beliefs of our students, faculty, staff, and community. Respect for diversity is essential to building community out of our human differences and similarities.*

By spring 1998, the Campus Affirmative Action Committee broadened its role to become the Campus Diversity Committee. The new president convened a Community Advisory Committee for Diversity, responding to the one recommendation from the faculty task force that could be accomplished immediately. These community representatives provided input related to diversity for the college "Visioning Day," the first step in development of a college strategic plan.

In fall 1998, the college strategic plan was completed and approved by the board of trustees as the "ends" (or outcomes), according to the language of policy governance, that they wanted the college to achieve. The vision statement, "To be Frederick County's premier learning community for quality, accessible, innovative, lifelong education," led to an emphasis on diversity in the plan's directions and objectives.

By spring 1999, the search for a director of diversity had begun, in accordance with the strategic plan's emphasis on diversity. The first search was not successful as the selected candidate chose not to accept the employment offer. The job description and title were revised, and the campus hired a consultant to move forward on diversity. Planning continued in college and community committees as well as campus focus groups while a second search for a director of diversity was conducted.

In fall 1999, the diversity consultant began his work. The focus groups were also held in the fall of this year.

In January 2000, a director of diversity, who reports directly to the president, was hired. The new director used the extensive input collected by the consultant from campus focus groups, community contacts, and expert observations (*A Diversity Strategy for the 21st Century: Proposed Diversity Strategic Implementation Plan*, developed by AHG & Associates, LLC) to develop a diversity implementation plan that supported the college strategic plan. This implementation plan was reviewed and formally approved by campus affinity groups for faculty, administrative, and support staff (affinity groups represent the faculty, staff, and administrators regarding welfare issues). It was then presented to the board of trustees.

In late spring/summer 2000, the implementation of the diversity plan strategies began after many years of discussion and development.

Justification

The Frederick County community is undergoing significant change. To reflect the growing population of the county, members of the Community Advisory Committee for Diversity and the Campus Diversity Committee advocated for more diversity in the student body and, concomitantly, more diversity among the faculty and staff serving this student population. The county experienced a 33 percent growth in population in the 1990s, which followed a 31 percent growth in population from 1980 to 1990. Most of this growth was "in-migration" from other Maryland counties. In terms of population gain, Frederick County ranks at the top among 24 jurisdictions in Maryland.

Mirroring the demographic trends in the country, Maryland's current population is 64 percent Caucasian, 28 percent African American, 3 percent Hispanic, 4 percent Asian, and 0.3 percent Native American. Unlike current and national trends, Frederick County's demographics have remained fairly stable during the last decade: 93 percent Caucasian, 5 percent African American, and 2 percent other. By contrast, the percentage increases in population for Frederick County, based on U.S. Census estimates, are the following: Hispanic, 11.9 percent; white, 23.5 percent; black, 76.8 percent; Native American, 53.5 percent; Asian/Pacific Islander, 90.4 percent; total 27.1 percent. While the county minority population is only 7 percent, FCC's minority enrollment has steadily increased to 16.5 percent.

The Educational Testing Service publication *Crossing the Great Divide: Can We Achieve Equity When Generation Y Goes to College?* states that the number of young adults academically qualified to go to college is expected to rise by 19 percent between 2000 and 2020, and that minority students will account for most of the increase. In 1990, Frederick County Public Schools (FCPS) provided the following statistics on the changes in the school-age population between 1990 and 2000:

Students	1990	2000
Caucasian	91%	87%
African American	6%	9%
Asian	1%	2%
Hispanic	0.8%	2%
Native American	0.1%	0.2%

The Hispanic, Asian, and Native American percentages doubled in 10 years. A 23 percent increase in Frederick County public high school senior enrollment is expected by 2010. Sixty percent of FCPS graduates who attend college in Maryland attend FCC. These demographic trends alone necessitate attending to issues of diversity now, rather than later.

Additional justification for a diversity program was brought forth in focus groups organized by the diversity consultant before the arrival of the director of diversity. The major issues that emerged were the following:

- Diversity initiatives and interest vary from department to department.
- Maryland Higher Education Commission (MHEC) accountability benchmarks are given only for African Americans. Other groups should be included.
- Student diversity is increasing. Although there also appears to be an increase in diversity of staff, this increase is primarily in support staff, not in faculty and administration.
- More people of color are moving into the county. The college needs to reflect that diversity. This is critical to ensuring that FCC is viewed as "serious about diversity."

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- There exists a perception that the salary offered at FCC is an impediment to attracting minorities, although some minorities tend to disagree with this statement.
- Positions, when advertised, offer a salary range. There is a perception among some that this affords the college the opportunity to offer the higher end of the salary range to non-minorities.
- The college does not offer tuition assistance toward the bachelor's degree to those who have an associate of arts (an inaccurate perception, although the job-related requirement may be an issue), but offers assistance to faculty and staff for master's degrees and doctorates.

The consultant also distributed a questionnaire, "Organizational Barriers to Diversity," to the focus groups. The barriers the groups thought significant were as follows:

- It is strongly believed that affirmative action precludes the use of merit for hiring.
- There is a perception that there has been a lot of progress.
- Diversity is not seen as a top priority.
- Some are annoyed at what they consider to be reverse racism.
- There is a fear of hiring underskilled and undereducated workers.
- There is a perception that dismantling existing systems to accommodate diversity would be too difficult.
- A perception exists that the cost of implementing a diversity program would be too great.
- The sheer size of the organization and differences in readiness and willingness to deal with issues of diversity might be formidable obstacles.

Although participants in the focus groups thought these barriers could prove prohibitive, the college proceeded with its plans to create an Office of Diversity.

"Campus diversity practitioners often complain that diversity initiatives aren't well integrated into the core structure of their colleges or universities. They argue that until diversity becomes a central feature of strategic planning efforts, little will substantively change with regard to campus diversity and diversity initiatives will remain marginal and vulnerable." This statement from an article titled "Diversity Plans: What Impact Can They Have?" from the fall 1999 issue of *Diversity Digest* clearly indicates the importance of tying the diversity plan to the college strategic plan. The FCC strategic plan, approved by all affinity groups and by the board of trustees, became the operational platform for the creation of an Office of Diversity and the driving force behind the hiring of the director of diversity.

Strategic Planning

In 1998–99, a collegewide discussion was initiated to adopt a planning process that was new for the college. In May 1998, all faculty and staff were invited to participate in a "Visioning Day." Visioning Day was a day set aside for all faculty, staff, and administrators to provide input into planning for the future of the college. The college research director began the day setting the stage with her presentation of "Environmental Scan" data and information. Dr. Don Norris of Strategic Initiatives, Inc., conducted the program for the remainder of the day and contributed much from his research and writing on the future of higher education. Eleven breakout groups were formed, comprised of randomly selected faculty, support staff, administrators, and students. Each group was asked to discuss the possible components of a college vision statement and to propose possible FCC initiatives and describe the barriers they might face. From this input, the elements of the vision statement were determined.

Subsequently, the president, the president's administrative staff, Budget and Planning Council members (appointed by their divisions and affinity groups), and a Student Government Association member convened at a retreat to craft a vision statement and eight "Strategic Directions," or directions for action, to be presented to the college community. During the academic year, the Budget and Planning Council met every month and reviewed input from different divisions and revised a series of drafts. The board of trustees approved the final strategic plan in November 1998.

Thereafter, each division submitted strategies related to different directions in the college strategic plan, including budget allocation and measurable outcomes. The strategic plan helped the college to focus on the situation and recognize where it was at that point and where it was heading in the next three to five years. The key to the success of FCC strategic planning has been the participation and collaboration on the part of the entire college community.

The college plan, as finalized from numerous drafts, is shown below as it relates to the directions and objectives that specifically address issues of diversity. Note that objectives 5 through 9 do not specifically address diversity.

Direction 1: Culture. Foster a student-centered culture that values diversity, growth, trust, teamwork, and individual contributions.

Objective 1: Implement a process that promotes and assesses the college's commitment to a student-centered culture that values diversity, growth, trust, teamwork, and individual contributions.

Direction 2: Access and Diversity. Expand access for all learners and promote respect for the differences and diverse perspectives that exist among people.

Objective 2: Increase student retention and success rates overall and within targeted groups according to established Maryland Higher Education Commission (MHEC) accountability goals.

Objective 4: Increase the diversity of faculty and staff based on MHEC accountability goals and the Diversity Committee plan.

Direction 3: Programs. Deliver flexible programs and services anytime, anyplace.

Direction 4: Strategic Alliances. Forge educational, business, and community partnerships.

Objective 7: Expand opportunities to increase resources and/or improve educational services through partnerships.

Direction 5: Technology. Use and sustain state-of-the-art technology.

Direction 6: New Financial Resources. Develop innovative strategies for financial support.

Direction 7: Human Resources. Enhance human resources to promote excellence.

Objective 10: Recruit and retain outstanding faculty/staff by providing competitive compensation commensurate with community colleges in the state/region.

Objective 11: Implement a comprehensive staff development program that focuses on teaching and learning, student services, technology, wellness, and management/supervisory skill enhancement.

Direction 8: Evaluation. Foster excellence through reflection, assessment of learning, and performance improvement.

Emerging Diversity Program

The diversity plan and program were developed by the director of diversity using the consultant's work and feedback from the campus community and Community Advisory Committee. In addition, student affinity groups reshaped the plan to include their comments to fit within the framework of the college's strategic plan. During this process, some faculty members began to question if a specific diversity program warranted and questioned the benefits of a diversity initiative.

The principals involved in planning the diversity initiative responded to faculty requests for information on the benefits of diversity. In addition to citing numerous articles from *The Chronicle of Higher Education* and Internet sources such as

- The University of Michigan's expert testimony from Patricia Gurin, William G. Bowen, Derek Bok, Claude Steele, et al., in *The Compelling Need for Diversity in Higher Education.*
- Stanford University's prepublication draft of *Compelling Interest: Examining the Evidence of Racial Dynamics in Higher Education,* Mitchell Chang, Daria Witt-Sandis, James Jones, Kenji Hakuta, editors.

Also cited were

- *Reasons for Hope: Promising Practices from the Campus Diversity Initiative,* published by the Association of American College and Universities with support from the Ford Foundation.
- *The Impact of Diversity on Students: A Preliminary Review of the Research Literature,* Morgan Appel, David Cartwright, Daryl G. Smith, and Lisa E. Wolf, Association of American Colleges and Universities, 1996.
- *Minorities in Higher Education: 1999–2000,* Deborah J. Wilds, American Council on Education, 2000.

Thus, a compelling body of research to support gains from a diverse campus climate laid the foundation for the college to complete a diversity implementation plan that supports the college strategic plan directions.

Implementation

The diversity plan has 11 goals related to each Strategic Direction. While these goals are not explicitly quantifiable, our assessment tool provides some measurement.

- Foster a climate within the college that values diversity (Direction 1).
- Assist in outreach to and recruitment and retention of a more diverse student population, and in developing strategies for student success (Direction 2).
- Collaborate with Continuing Education/Customized Training to identify nontraditional topics and audiences (Direction 3).
- Increase diversity of faculty and staff (Directions 2 and 7).
- Promote global awareness with faculty, staff, students, and community (Direction 3).
- Encourage development of activities that cause students to work together as teams on projects and issues (Direction 3).
- Create space on campus for informal interaction between faculty, staff, and students (Direction 3).
- Develop partnerships within the community to support FCC diversity initiatives (Direction 4).
- Develop grants or raise funds from local businesses and other organizations to support the diversity effort (Direction 6).
- Provide a comprehensive diversity training schedule and incorporate diversity awareness into all staff development (Direction 7).
- Evaluate and refine the diversity plan (Direction 8).

Prior to approval of the diversity implementation plan, campus consensus was reached that a director of diversity should be hired to facilitate implementation of the diversity program. The director of diversity has no operational responsibility for recruiting and retaining students, or for hiring and retaining employees. The director, however, works closely with the coordinator of recruitment and outreach responsible for the recruitment of students; the program manager for multicultural student support services, responsible for the student mentoring program, which predominantly serves students of color; and the director of human resources. The director of diversity serves as the college's internal consultant and as a sounding board for issues of diversity. The Office of Diversity has direct operational responsibility for developing community partnerships and for providing and facilitating staff training in diversity. Although the Office of Human Resources has the direct responsibility for Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) concerns, the Office of Diversity is a place where employees and members of the community may turn when EEO issues arise.

The Campus Diversity Committee and the Community Advisory Committee for Diversity provided useful suggestions and advice to the college and advocated tirelessly for the establishment of an Office of Diversity and for the hiring of a director who would report directly to the president of the college. As the implementation of the diversity plan continues, the future role of both organizations is being delineated.

The Campus Diversity Committee began as the Affirmative Action Committee, but has received no training in the last four years. Although 40 people are listed as members, consistent participation has fallen to half that number.

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The committee has realized its goal of creating an Office of Diversity and recognizes that restructuring is currently necessary. Restructuring is also a necessity for the Community Advisory Committee. This committee must represent as many dimensions of diversity as possible. It is in the process of gauging the continued interest of those currently serving and is striving to expand the membership list. Both committees will meet soon to address the future.

In addition to the committees, the vice presidents are staunch supporters of the diversity effort. As the effort continues, more and more diversity advocates have come forward to offer assistance and support.

In January 2000, the Office of Diversity has begun to implement the diversity plan by addressing its goals. Following are summaries of activities corresponding to those goals:

Foster a climate within the college that values diversity (Direction 1).

Promote global awareness with faculty, staff, students, and community (Direction 3).

Provide a comprehensive diversity training schedule and incorporate diversity awareness into all staff development training (Direction 7).

The director of diversity provided collegewide diversity training for faculty and staff in the fall semester 2000. In addition, the vice president for student development and the diversity director have planned a three-year diversity training schedule for that division. Forty members of that staff participated in the first of many training sessions. Likewise, plans are currently under way for the first diversity training event specifically for faculty. The diversity training calendar includes one event each month that is open to all faculty and staff.

Based on the countries of origin of FCC's international students, the Office of Diversity and the Office of Student Life and Alumni Services last semester purchased flags and two large exhibit cases in the library area to display cultural artifacts. Currently on display are exhibits of Germany and Thailand. FCC students currently represent 38 countries, all of which will eventually be featured in exhibits. The Office of Diversity has also invited diplomats from these countries to come to the campus and speak to students, faculty, and staff from their perspectives on globalization.

This semester the Offices of Diversity and Student Life and Alumni Services have partnered to present the award-winning film *The Color of Fear.* Students, faculty, staff, and community members spend four weeks watching and discussing the film that looks at racism from the viewpoints of eight men of varying ethnicities. The first discussion series drew a group of 13; the second series has drawn a group of 20. Those who have participated have called the discussions "life altering."

Discussions are under way regarding a cultural audit of the college and, in partnership with the county Human Relations Commission, a community-wide town hall meeting on racism.

Assist in the outreach to and recruitment and retention of a more diverse student population, and in developing strategies for their success (Direction 2).

The director of diversity meets regularly with the coordinator of recruitment and outreach and the program manager for multicultural student support services, who is responsible for the student mentoring program, which predominantly serves students of color. The director recently accompanied the coordinator of recruitment and outreach on a recruitment trip and made several suggestions for improving our recruitment materials and efforts. The program manager for multicultural student support services and the director of diversity have worked together to improve the mentoring program and to encourage the establishment of Hispanic, Asian, and Native American clubs (the Black Student Union is very active). The goal is to eventually bring all groups together to share information about their similarities and differences. In addition to providing a diversity activity for all incoming traditional-age freshmen, the director of diversity, at the request of some faculty members, has visited classrooms and provided diversity training to students. Faculty members have also requested diversity resources available through the Office of Diversity.

Increase diversity of faculty and staff (Directions 2 and 7).

In the summer of 2000, the college hired a new director of human resources. The director of diversity works closely with the human resources director and members of his staff. A human resources (HR) action plan, which addresses hiring a more diverse faculty and staff, was developed. Efforts are currently under way in the Office of Human Resources to

- change many procedures in the office that seem to "screen out" rather than "screen in" applications;
- add to the culture that values diversity by offering staff development;
- form strategic alliances;
- automate numerous HR services;
- meet new HR goals and timelines; and
- work toward arriving at compensation that is competitive among community colleges in the state and region.

Develop partnerships within the community to support FCC diversity initiatives (Direction 4).

The director of diversity meets regularly with the diversity counterpart of Frederick County Public Schools, with the Hispanic Concerns Committee, the Human Relations Council, EEO representatives of the local military installation, the Commission for Women, the NAACP, and several social service agencies in the county. Members of the Community Advisory Committee for Diversity represent Big Brothers, Big Sisters, Frederick County Public Schools, the National Cancer Institute, Children and Adults with Attention Deficit Disorders, Frederick Youth Services, the Negro Business and Professional Women's Club, the Maryland Small Business Development Center, and the Department of Rehabilitative Services.

Collaborate with Continuing Education/Customized Training to identify nontraditional topics and audiences (Direction 3).

The diversity director has assisted staff

from Customized Training in planning a "Diversity Day" for local businesses.

Develop grants and raise funds from local businesses and other organizations to support the diversity effort (Direction 6).

Initial work has begun. The Office of Diversity was awarded a $500 grant from the Maryland Commission for Celebration 2000, Inc., to purchase the videotape The Color of Fear and its follow-up video, Walking Each Other Home, for a Millennial Seminar.

Assessment

To evaluate the success of diversity initiatives, FCC will use the following criteria to measure outcomes:

- Campus climate (composed of these particular measures):
  - — the numbers of people attending diversity training;
  - — results of training evaluations;
  - — result of surveys assessing campus climate;
  - — documentation of more diverse viewpoints integrated into the curriculum;
  - — student, faculty, and staff participation in international observances, festivals, and events on campus; and
  - — the number of avenues for cross-cultural dialogue.
- Enrollment data
- Retention numbers for students, faculty, and staff of color
- New resources in the library pertaining to global awareness
- Number of courses pertaining to global awareness in course curricula
- The number of programs on campus dealing with global issues: attendance at and satisfaction with those programs
- The college's strategic alliances in diversity (as composed by these measures):
  - — the number of diversity-related partnership agreements;
  - — the number of diversity programs cosponsored with the community;
  - — the number of diversity articles published and presentations given on diversity; and
  - — the number of diversity training events provided to community organizations.
- The amount of money raised from grants or contributions for diversity initiatives.

In 1998 the Maryland Higher Education Commission asked the college to set accountability benchmarks in regard to some diversity-related outcomes. These benchmarks, or goals, were specifically mentioned in Direction 2: Access and Diversity, Objectives 2 and 4, and printed in the strategic plan summary so that all would be aware of their importance.

These accountability benchmarks preceded the diversity plan, but the progress achieved to date includes:

Access and Diversity

Access

1. Increase second-year retention rate to 73 percent by the year 2000.

   Progress: The 1998 cohort rate is 71 percent. A comprehensive student retention plan will be implemented in FY01. FCC's current retention rate for this cohort ranks first among Maryland community colleges.

2. Increase second year retention rate of remedial students to 77 percent by the year 2000.

   Progress: The 1998 cohort rate is 71 percent. This retention rate ranks first among Maryland community colleges. Strategies to improve this rate are included in the comprehensive student retention plan.

3. Increase Maryland public four-year transfer/graduation rate to 45 percent by the year 2001.

   Progress: The four year transfer/graduation rate is 41 percent overall. Strategies for increasing this rate are included in the college's comprehensive student retention plan.

4. Increase the number of students transferring to Maryland public four-year institutions from 208 to 224 by the year 2001.

   Progress: This number increased to 244, higher than the benchmark of 224.

Diversity

5. Increase percentage of African American total headcount enrollment from 6.2 percent to 8 percent by fall 2001.

   Progress: African American enrollment for fall 1999 was 7.6 percent. Specific new strategies are outlined in the college's comprehensive student recruitment plan.

6. Increase percentage of African American full-time faculty from 2.9 percent to 8 percent (six faculty members) by fall 2001.

   Progress: The percentage of African American full-time faculty is 2.9 percent. New strategies are included in the human resources action plan.

7. Increase percentage of African American full-time executive/managerial positions from 0 percent to 8 percent (two employees) by fall 2001.

   Progress: The percentage of African American full-time executive/managerial is 4 percent (one employee). Strategies to address this goal are included in the human resources action plan.

8. Increase four-year transfer/graduation rate of all minorities from 28 percent to 45 percent by fall 2000.

   Progress: The four-year transfer/graduation rate of minorities (30.4 percent) and African Americans (12 percent) is below the overall rate of 41 percent and goal of 45 percent. Strategies for increasing the rate of minorities and African Americans are incorporated in the college's comprehensive student retention plan.

The college regularly reports to the state on progress related to these goals, but also recognizes a need to address a much broader assessment related to the strategic plan. FCC's director of research, planning, and evaluation, working with the Budget and Planning Council (a broad-based campuswide group with appointed representation from faculty,

staff, students, and administration affinity groups, plus the college senate) annually assesses progress on all aspects of the strategic plan. A report of this progress is made to the campus, as well as the board of trustees. An annual summer planning retreat is held to make adjustments to the plan as directed by the annual review. In the process of evaluating the strategic plan, the supporting diversity implementation plan is also evaluated campuswide each year. This summary evaluation is supported by ongoing formative evaluation conducted by the Campus Diversity Committee and the Community Advisory Committee for Diversity. The director of diversity meets biweekly with the president, and the progress on the various components of the diversity implementation plan is a consistent topic of discussion and update reporting.

Lessons Learned from the Implementation Process

FCC's Office of Diversity is still in its infancy. As the college looks back on its experiences in the years preceding the creation of the Office of Diversity, and the experiences since its inception, there are lessons learned that might be useful to other colleges that have yet to begin a diversity initiative.

- When diversity is everybody's business, it's nobody's business!

  Many departments are involved in meeting FCC's diversity goals. Before the creation of the Office of Diversity, there was no single office monitoring duplication of effort or coordinating all the disparate efforts. There was no office or individual responsible for maintaining the college's focus on diversity goals and reaching those goals.

- The diversity plan must be connected to the strategic plan.

  The strategic plan documents the vision, directions, and goals upon which all college stakeholders agreed. The director of diversity is empowered by the strategic plan to champion diversity and maintain momentum.

- Commitment from the top is essential.

  FCC's Faculty Task Force on Diversity and both the campus and Community Advisory Committees recommended that the director of diversity report directly to the president. Commitment from the top provides the Office of Diversity with the clout to get things done.

- Move ahead while awaiting approval from stakeholders.

  There will always be objections to the program, plan, or office, but there is too much to be done to wait. The initiative should move ahead, taking small steps while winning allies and support.

- Involve the community.

  A community college does not operate in a vacuum. Involving representatives from all segments of the population is essential for promoting an action-oriented community committee. The principals at FCC firmly believe that efforts to deal with issues of diversity are catapulting the college into a position of community leadership in the area of diversity.

  The Office of Diversity must connect with community groups and leaders, including the Human Relations Council, the NAACP, the Hispanic Concerns Committee, the public schools, local military installations, and other local institutions of higher education, as well as other important groups.

- Gain broad-based support on campus.

  This process will take a long time as the college takes small steps, examines the systems in place, and slowly gains support. The Office of Diversity also needs a public relations effort, both internally and externally.

- Hire a director of diversity who matches the campus organizational climate and can work well with the community.

- Recognize the need for internal and external "cheerleaders," or "champions"; that is, the Community Advisory Committee, Campus Diversity Committee, president, consultant, and director.

  A new venture such as this requires significant support. When diversity was everyone's job, progress was slow and uneven. One of the diversity director's tasks is to involve everyone in a coordinated diversity effort and to hold them accountable for their performance.

- Be prepared for controversy.

  In addition to justifying the need for a diversity program, be prepared to address anything that appears in print concerning the diversity effort. For example, FCC has been open about our need to address the Maryland Higher Education Commission (MHEC) accountability goals. FCC has responded to questions from the college population and the community about the contradiction between the campus's broad and global definition of diversity and MHEC goals, which only address the recruitment and retention of African American students and the recruitment of African American staff and faculty. College leadership states that MHEC is responding to the historic underrepresentation of African Americans and the current demographic reality of a 28 percent African American population in the state, while the college definition is tailored to local needs.

Obstacles to Success

Predicting obstacles that might hinder FCC's ability to meet diversity goals is difficult. The potential barriers mentioned by the focus groups—issues of merit, satisfaction with the status quo, equating minorities with the less qualified, and fear of change—must and will be addressed. Other obstacles are described below:

- FCC has done well in attracting and enrolling minority students, but there are still hard-to-reach students and families to be served.

- FCC's retention rate for minority students is lower than for majority students. While FCC has the highest retention rate of all community colleges in Maryland, the college needs to improve the retention of minority students.

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- Large numbers of minority students spend many semesters achieving college readiness. FCC has a disproportionate number of minority students enrolled in developmental English and Math classes that may add years to their college experience. Reaching these students early so they will take the classes that will best prepare them for college is a top priority for FCC and the local school system.
- Frederick County has a tight job market with a small but growing minority population. Hiring a more diverse faculty and staff is difficult within the college service area.
- Counteracting the tendency of groups to hire people in their own image is a slow process.
- Providing competitive compensation in a tight job market is also a challenge that FCC has begun to address.
- The dilemma of retaining a more diverse faculty is a challenge that FCC hopes to address with its community partners.

Conclusion

By tying the diversity implementation plan to the college strategic plan, Frederick Community College will succeed at meeting the vision, directions, and goals of both plans. The college will provide the leadership in our community to achieve equity and equality of opportunity for all students. FCC recognizes the importance of preparing all students to live in a country of increasing diversity and a globally interdependent world. FCC sees as its goal not only the education of all students but also the involvement of all students in the democratic process, thus expanding the pool of future leaders for Frederick County and the nation◇

WEB LINKS . . .

Web links to other institutions that have either tied diversity to their strategic plans or have distinct strategic plans for diversity.

Community College of Baltimore County
Supporting Strategic Directions
Embracing Diversity

CCBC will attract and retain a diverse faculty, staff, and student community and promote a learning environment that embraces and values diversity.

Discussion:
For an educational institution, diversity initiatives flow from an intellectual commitment to moral and legal imperatives to ensure that all persons realize their full potential; the need for each member of the academic community to learn how to function more effectively in a culturally- rich world; and a desire to influence the emotional growth of students, faculty, and staff by helping them develop authentic relationships with those who are different from themselves. In order for these initiatives to succeed, diversity must be conceptualized broadly and recognized as an organizational resource and an opportunity for excellence. Leading by example from the top of the system and at all levels, CCBC is committed to creating a learning community which fosters respect for individuals, accepts and embraces diverse learning styles, and promotes equity.
http://www.ccbc.cc.md.us/ccbc/strategic/supporting_directions_t.htm#embracing

California State University—San Bernadino
CSUSB's Vision for Diversity
CSUSB will be a university community where all individuals are secure to explore and develop their cultural and diverse identities. All persons will be provided opportunity and encouragement to explore and discover the richness of the tapestry of human experience. The university community is united in the condemnation of acts of hatred and intolerance (excerpt).
http://diversity.csusb.edu/plan.htm

Penn State University—DuBois Campus
Campus Strategic Plan
Section 3: Diversity
The Challenge

The Penn State DuBois service area is one of the least diverse served by the University. The demographics of high school graduates in our service area for 1997 demonstrate that:

- There were 4,613 graduates in our region.
- 50 of those students were of minority status including Alaskan Native, African American, Latino and Hispanic. This is approximately one percent of the total graduate population.
- Of those 50 students, 14 are from Indiana County. Only the northernmost portion of that county, which has few of those students, is in our service area.

While Penn State DuBois is not centered in a racially diverse area, at the same time, we feel an obligation to serve both our students and our community by fostering a climate which supports diversity.
http://www.ds.psu.edu/welcome/strategicplan/challenge.htm

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THE AUTHORS

Patricia Stanley is president of Frederick Community College in Frederick, Maryland. She became the first female president of the college in January 1998. Prior to FCC, She was executive vice president of Cypress College in Cypress, California, and has extensive experience in strategic planning serving as a planning facilitator with numerous groups and institutions.

Beverly Hendrix is FCC's director of diversity. Her position was created in January 2000 and Ms. Hendrix was the first to fill it. Her expertise in diversity is drawn from her experience on four continents and thirty countries serving in various foreign affairs capacities with the United States Information Agency.

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RESEARCH NOTES

Following are current citations (and those previously not cited by *Removing Vestiges*) to research that explore the educational benefits of diversity and progress in desegregation. The specific research questions they explore include:

1. **Teaching and Learning**—Can racially diverse environments improve student learning, including students' understanding of substantive issues and/or students' critical thinking/problem solving skills?
2. **Civic Values**—Can racially diverse environments enhance students' civil/democratic values, including students' racial attitudes and of intergroup relations?
3. **Employment**—Can racially diverse environments promote students' preparation for employment, including students' understanding of the value of diverse perspectives and/or ability to function effectively in diverse business environments?
4. **Critical Mass**—What level of diversity is necessary or optimal to promote each of the educational benefits listed above?
5. **Policies and Programs**—What campus efforts are necessary or optimal to promote the educational benefits of diversity listed above?
6. **Opportunity and Achievement**—Can racially desegregated environments promote educational opportunity and achievement, especially with regard to disadvantaged minority students?

Types of Evidence: Several types of research may provide both direct and indirect evidence of the educational benefits of diversity. These include, but are limited to, (1) opinion evidence (e.g. testimony from education leaders and survey evidence from students and educators on the benefits of diversity), (2) outcome evidence (e.g. studies showing positive educational outcomes from learning in diverse environments), and (3) programmatic evidence (e.g., success stories of what works and what institutions are doing to promote the benefits of diversity.)

Summary of Research Evidence:

Adams, Mauriane & Zhou-McGovern, Yu-Hui
The Sociomoral Development of Undergraduates in a "Social Diversity" Course: Development Theory, Research and Instructional Applications, paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Research Association, New Orleans, LA. (Apr. 1994)
(ERIC Report No. 380345), **1994**

Case study and pretest/posttest study. Study found statistically significant positive effects on cognitive development for both minority and non-minority college students participating in a social diversity course with a diverse student body. **[Teaching and Learning]**

American Association of University Professors & American Council on Education
Does Diversity Make a Difference? Three Research Studies on Diversity in College Classrooms, **2000**

Analyses of data from college faculty member questionnaires. Concludes that diversity plays a role in increasing cognitive learning, complex thinking and personal development because it challenges stereotypes, broadens perspectives and sharpens critical thinking skills. Study also discusses the elements necessary to realize this benefit. **[Teaching and Learning; Policies and Programs]**

Braddock, II, Jomills Henry; Crain, Robert L. & McPartland, James
A Long-Term View of School Desegregation: Some Recent Studies of Graduates as Adults, Phi Delta Kappan 259 (Dec. 1984), **1984**

Provides an overview of several studies on school desegregation. Studies show that white and African American students who attend desegregated schools are more likely as adults to attend diverse colleges, live in integrated neighborhoods, work in diverse firms, and have friends from another racial group. **[Civic Values; Employment; Opportunity and Achievement]**

Carnevale, Anthony
Campus Diversity and the New Economy (draft paper presented at ACE conference on Achieving Inclusion and Equity in Higher Education, Jan. 14-16, 1999), **2000**

Article examines workforce statistics, the new global economy, and research on projected college enrollments. Concludes that a diverse workforce yields economic as well as social benefits to the U.S., supporting the need for increased diversity at college through some form of affirmative action as well as other alternatives to increase minority enrollments. **[Teaching and Learning; Civic Values; Employment; Critical Mass; Policies and Programs; Opportunity and Achievement]**

Chang, Mitchell; Hakuta, Kenji; Jones, James; and Witt, Daria
Compelling Interest: Examining the Evidence on Racial Dynamics in Higher Education, the American Education Research Association and the Stanford University Center for Comparative Studies in Race and Ethnicity, **1999**

Study concludes that racially diverse environments, when properly utilized, lead to quantitative as well as qualitative gains (otherwise unattainable in homogenous environments) in educational outcomes for all parties. **[Civic Values; Policies and Programs]**

Cox, Taylor, Jr.
Cultural Diversity in Organizations: Theory, Research and Practice, **1993**

Study involving small groups. Finds that exposure to racial diversity measurably improves cognitive ability, and that members of heterogeneous groups typically devise more creative solutions to problems than members of homogeneous groups. **[Civic Values; Employment; Critical Mass]**

Hallinan, Maureen
Diversity Effects on student Outcomes: Social Science Evidence, 59 Ohio St. L. J. 733 (1998), **1998**

Descriptive article outlining social science evidence. For college students, diversity promotes learning, increases understanding of racial groups and cultures, reduces racism and prejudice, and leads to cordial relationships of students of difference racial and ethnic heritage. The positive effects of diversity are conditioned on institutional support and promotion of diversity and multiculturalism. **[Teaching and Learning; Civic Values; Policies and Programs; Opportunities and Achievement]**

Lopez, G. E.
The Effect of Group Contact and Curriculum on White, Asian American, and African American students' Attitudes Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan. (Abstract in Dissertation Abstracts International 54 (07): 3900B, **1993**

Longitundinal survey of University of Michigan students. Changes in attitudes resulted from a course in diversity, and inter-group contact resulted in attitude changes for white students, with mixed results among African Americans. **[Civic Values]**

Villapando, Octavio
Comparing the Effects of Multiculturalism and Diversity on Minority and White Students' Satisfaction with College, Paper presented at the Association for the Study of Higher Education, Tuscon, Arizona (ERIC Report No. 375721), **1993**

Longitudinal study of the positive effects of diversity on students' college experience. Finds that socializing with other-race students and discussion racial/ethnic issues positively impacts students' academic and personal development. **[Teaching and Learning; Civic Values]**

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